



THE
BRITISH ADMINISTRATION
OF
MYSORE

BY A NATIVE OF MYSORE

PART I.

FIFTY YEARS OF ADMINISTRATION



LONDON

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PART II.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FUTURE.

MYSORE

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MY SORE.

AT the present moment, when so much interest is evinced everywhere on the subject of the education which is being given to the young Maharajah of Mysore, under the orders of the Secretary of State for India, for the purpose of training him for the future government of his province, a question of no less importance naturally suggests itself to consideration, viz. how that province is being prepared to receive the native ruler. This question has been asked in several quarters, and as it seems to have elicited no reply, and as it is one of deep interest to the natives of this province, we need no apology in coming forward to take up the subject. And though we cannot but feel diffident in venturing upon an untried field, we shall be satisfied if we so far succeed as to draw attention to the great importance of the question.

The affairs of Mysore possess great interest not only in the peculiar character of their origin but in the great consequences which are involved in their future. The act by which the Earl of Mornington rescued the scion of the old Mysore family from his dungeon and replaced him on the throne of his ancestors, whether it emanated from an unwillingness to augment the dominions of his allies in the Mysore campaigns or from a desire to conciliate the natives of the land (a policy of conciliation of which Hyder had furnished such a successful precedent, and which his bigoted son with such infatuation violated to the ruin of all his interests), or whether, what is more

probable than either, this singular instance of generosity had its origin in the counsels of that honest, noble mind, which was then emerging into importance, and whose sympathising interest in their welfare has made the Mysore family regard him as their great idol, this act stands out as a glorious feature in a career of conquest and spoliation which marks the origin of every great empire. But Mysore, if its affairs are managed in strict accordance with the spirit of the policy now avowed in regard to it by the British Government, is destined to play a far more important part in the future career of peace than even its original founders ever dreamt of. We do not intend to follow out the subsequent stages of the eventful career of this Native State. We need not dwell on the manner in which the early training and education of the Maharajah, thus installed, was neglected by the Dewan, engrossed in the screwing out of a revenue in which he had a direct interest in the shape of a percentage commission; how the official jealousies between the Dewan, the protégé of the supreme Government and the Resident, a nominee of the Government of Madras, led to the displacement of the former, and to the placing of the country into the inexperienced hands of the Rajah at the early age of sixteen, without any guarantee for its good government such as was obviously necessary under the circumstances; how his Highness, smarting under the neglect he and his relations had suffered at the hands of the Dewan, was induced to entrust the administration into the hands of his ignorant relations and dependants, whose reckless mismanagement soon led to the ruin of the finances, the oppression of the ryots, and to the disturbances in Nuggur, while all the time the representatives of the Government passively looked on, content with giving general admonitions, and perhaps not altogether indisposed towards a consummation which was rather desired, and matters came to such a pitch that

even the peaceably disposed Lord William Bentinck was obliged to interfere and place the country under British management, though, as distinctly declared by him and his successors, as a temporary arrangement; and how the footing thus obtained in the lapse of time engendered a desire, first silently felt and subsequently openly asserted, of possessing the country absolutely under the plea of imperial rights and public good. Neither do we wish to enter into a scrutiny of the plausible and ingenious arguments devised to support and reconcile the preconceived idea of absorption of the province with the conditions and terms of treaties. Suffice it to say, to the Tory statesmen—Lords Stanley and Cranbourne, and Sir Stafford Northcote—belongs the credit of having once and for ever put an end to these harassing discussions, so subversive of the credit of the British Government for good faith and justice. The despatch penned by the last named statesman settled the Mysore question finally, and in restoring the dynasty to the privileges of adoption and guarantees held out by the Queen's proclamation, it has given that great charter of native princes a reality and a fresh confirmation in their eyes.

But those who glory in the collapse of the annexation policy will do well not to forget that, however deservedly the grasping tendencies of that policy in its latter days may be condemned, it had its origin, or at least recommended itself to many an honest mind, by considerations other than those of mere territorial acquisitions, by a conviction of the inherent inefficiency of Native Governments, and of the inevitable necessity of direct British management to ensure the protection and prosperity of the people. In this utilitarian age, when social institutions can only hope to stand by their capacity to meet the wants of the people, no Queen's proclamations or solemn treaties can protect Native States in the long run if the arguments for annexation had real

force in them ; if it were true that direct British rule is the only panacea for all evils. Fortunately, as soon as the first elements of an orderly government and a certain degree of material prosperity had been attained, the capacity of that rule to cope with the more difficult problem of social advancement came to be severely tested, and the pretensions in its favour had in consequence to be somewhat moderated. The arguments for the continuance of Native States will, nevertheless, remain imperfect until native administrations can practically show their capacity to supply the want of the British Government in the above respect, to serve as the medium through which ideas of social advancement and progress can reach the masses in times of peace, and as conservative forces in times of trouble. This view of the utility of Native States, though of recent origin, has already received some consideration ; and notably amongst its advocates stands forth Major Evans Bell, whose various publications, characterized by a complete grasp of the subject and depth of thought, have effected a revolution in the prevailing ideas on the question. But the new theory still remains as an idea—an idea which has not as yet worked itself to any considerable extent into the minds of those who have practically the destiny of native administrations in their hands, or assumed any definite shape of working. The desire for the reformation of Native States has everywhere been aroused. Scindiah, Holkar, and Jeypoor are vying with one another to introduce into their governments reforms and improvements suggested by their English advisers. Joudpoor, and other mismanaged States, have been taken in hand to undergo a course of treatment under British supervision ; while the minority of the rulers of Hyderabad, Mysore, and some minor States, gives the British Government an opportunity of introducing an improved administration such as has never been known in Indian history. The

public attention, therefore, views with the greatest interest the course of these reforms, and a critical examination of the experiment, as carried on in one of the most important of these States, cannot but prove of some value at the present moment.

The province of Mysore has enjoyed peculiar advantages for the successful carrying out of such an experiment. When in a few years it is restored to native rule, it will have been nearly half a century under British management. It had the rare fortune of enjoying during this long period the continued rule of three specially-selected officers. From 1834 to 1860 the reins of government were held by General Sir Mark Cubbon, well known for his great ability, sound judgment, and magnanimity of heart. He was succeeded by an officer of great administrative powers and extensive experience in Indian affairs, who for nearly ten years ruled over the province, and whose unceasing interest in its welfare has earned for him the regard and confidence of the native community. And we are now in the fourth year of the rule of another distinguished officer, whose extensive acquaintance with Native States would seem to have led to his selection for the task of successfully preparing this province for native rule. It is also well known that, with the exception of some misunderstandings in the earlier years, brought about chiefly by differences of opinion between the English Commissioner at the head of the government and the English Resident at the court of the Maharajah, the progress of the administration met with no difficulties or impediments on the part of the late Maharajah, who, with singular devotion and attachment to the British Government, all along looked upon its representatives in the province as the best guardians of his own interests. After his Highness's demise, his Ranees, following the traditions of the family, have, with implicit faith in the good intentions of the Government,

consigned all their affairs into the hands of Government, and readily acquiesced in all its measures and suggestions ; so that here at least Government have had a clear field for the successful carrying out of this experiment upon which the future of Native States may be well said to hang. We shall therefore proceed to examine what has been accomplished in this long period of British administration ; what has been done to promote the material prosperity and social advancement of the people, and what in the way of laying the foundation of a prosperous native rule.

It is a singular fact in Indian administration that, notwithstanding an enormous mass of writing, reporting, and printing, so few of the measures of Government should find a place in public thought and discussion, or be understood even by Government departments other than those immediately connected with them ; a result which can only be attributed to the exclusiveness, if not the secrecy, with which all Government transactions are conducted. The Government of India have of recent years adopted the plan of publishing in the form of supplements to their Gazette, papers supposed to be of interest to the public, but though we find in them many reports of agricultural experiments and other stray subjects, we rarely come across any documents illustrative of the great questions upon which the good government of the country depends. The only sources of information on these matters available to the uninitiated are the Annual Administration Reports of the several provinces. These reports have been regularly published for Mysore from 1861-62. They give the working during the year of each of the several departments of which the government is composed, and may therefore be regarded as embodying the collective wisdom of the whole government agency. This is true to some extent. Where the administration is characterised by a clear comprehensive

plan and a deep insight into all the living details of the life and progress of the people, the report becomes proportionately interesting ; but where it is conducted on no definite policy, and consists of a patchwork of unconnected measures devised to meet the exigencies of the moment or brought about by the pressure of interests, the reports become a prolonged narrative of the doings and wants of the administrative machinery, as distinct from any effects on the people, and a dry array of the figured results shown in the annual statement, with averages and percentages, and comparisons with the previous actuals and budgets, contributing in no manner to bring out the important features of the administration. Those who have the misfortune of reading through these reports cannot but be struck with the thought how the minds of their authors become habituated to revel in figures as distinct from facts the importance of which alone can give these figures a value. Such as they are, we shall endeavour to take a cursory glance of results as shown by these reports.

When the province was assumed under the management of the British Government, instructions were issued, having regard to the temporary nature of its rule, that the agency employed should be exclusively native, and that native institutions should be carefully maintained. These instructions were, on the whole, faithfully observed during the long period of Sir Mark Cubbon's commissioner-ship ; for though in consequence of the deterioration which the native service had undergone, European officers had to be appointed to the charge of the four divisions in which the province was then divided, with a European assistant to each, the rest of the agency employed was entirely native, and the administration was conducted upon practical rules intended to meet actual wants, and which were in accordance with the ideas of the people. Speculative administration was yet unknown. Peace and

order was at once restored to the province as the consequence of a regular government. The incidence of the land-tax was lowered wherever it was oppressive, and, to the great relief of the ryot, numerous cesses were abolished which had originated in the prevailing idea of later native governments, that the sovereign had a right to turn to his account every incident in the life of the subject in return for the protection afforded to him. And at a later date, the abolition of the transit duties in the track of a similar measure carried out in the British territories, created an active trade which brought high prices and prosperity to the ryot and an increase of revenue to the government. Roads were at the same time made to meet the wants of this increasing trade, with an energy and economy unknown to the more recent days of departmental organisations. The administration of justice, civil and criminal, was conducted upon a system and code of rules which, though somewhat crude, were intended to meet actual wants and were intelligible to the people; and the judicial officers were aided by a system of punchayets which, though they could not have risen above the corruption of the officers by whom they were convened in cases in which influential interests were at stake, contributed to some extent to popularise the rules of judicial administration. But a grave defect in the system was the great latitude of authority which it conferred on the government officers, and which could not have been exercised with scrupulous adherence to justice amidst the general corruption which then prevailed in the highest courts of justice. The idea of a pure administration calculated to release the ryot from a perpetual helpless dependence on the government officers was quite in advance of the age, and the want of it was little felt by the ryot himself, then scarcely emerging from a long impoverished condition resulting from low prices and high government assessments; whilst the feeling of personal attachment and

friendship which characterised the then head of the government made him indulgent to weaknesses in his dependants, native and European, who filled the principal offices in the administration.

This state of matters naturally attracted the attention of a successor accustomed to a more orderly condition of things in British territories, and he at once set about to effect reforms by the usual expedient of organising departments, for which the way seemed to be made clear by the desire, then beginning to be openly avowed by Government, to absorb the province. The number of divisions into which the province was divided was raised from four to eight, which proportionately increased the number of European officers required for their superintendence, and this career of departmental organisations once thus commenced has continued to the present day without intermission. Every fresh want, as it was felt, at once gave rise to a new department, and many more have been added at the instance of the Central Government, in the unrestricted career of expansion which it has been undergoing ever since it was released from the tight restrictions on new charges, especially those of establishments, which had been the ruling principle of the government of the East India Company. The province can now boast of enjoying a greater number of departments and a larger European machinery than exists even in some of the British territories. We have, at present, besides the ordinary revenue and judicial agency, enlarged as already mentioned, a department of accounts, a department for the registration of documents, an establishment for the survey and settlement of lands, and another for the investigation of Inam tenures. We have also separate staffs of engineers for irrigation and for ordinary public works, with additional establishments for the conservancy of channels and for the control of D. P. W. accounts, and a distinct department for the working and conser-

vancy of forests. The new police system has been introduced in one district of the province, and the recent appointment of a Deputy Inspector-General of Police would seem to forebode its further extension under European agency. A large medical staff keeps charge of the jails and hospitals, and attends to sanitary concerns, whilst vital interests of towns are attended to by municipal corporations, which are being extended to all minor Taluk stations. For the interests of science and diffusion of knowledge there are a considerable education agency, a superintendent of agricultural experiments, and a minor agency in charge of museums and horticultural gardens, as well as a government press. The province has also a separate military force, under a European officer, and enjoys a local post. The effect of these supposed improvements is to increase the number of the superior grade officers from about thirty, their number in the days of General Cubbon, to 135, out of which less than thirty inferior appointments, exclusively in the revenue and judicial departments, are alone held by natives, the remainder of this large staff consisting of European officers. This sudden expansion of the administrative agency opened a wide door to patronage, and the large number of appointments thus made through interest, and not under a definite system, can only be expected to bring in an accession of average, or even inferior talent; whilst the native service, whose inferior calibre, brought about by a system of neglect and discouragement, was made the excuse for this large influx of Europeans, have by these arrangements been thrown into the shade more than ever. Before, however, we enter into a further examination of the effects of this new policy on the advancement of the people of the province, let us take a cursory glance at the working of the various departments thus organised.

Taking for our guide the Administration Report for

1871-2, the latest that has been published, we shall first examine the judicial branch of the administration. In the organisation which took place in 1862-3, the administration of civil justice, which had up to that time been conducted to a considerable extent by separate native courts, was, in imitation of the Punjab system, placed entirely in the hands of revenue officers, and it was only recently that the first principle of the separation of judicial from revenue functions was at all recognised by the creation of courts of judicial assistants for the trial of suits in the first instance. There is still a considerable amount of jurisdiction in suits of small value in the hands of revenue amildars, and the cognizance of larger suits, as well as the larger portion of appellate jurisdiction, vests in the deputy commissioners and commissioners, who have the control of revenue and other administrative work ; whilst an antiquated system of quasi-judicial procedure in matters relating to revenue and land, which was introduced after the Punjab pattern, has not yet been authoritatively set aside. An attempt has very recently been made to carry out a complete separation of judicial functions in one division of the province by the appointment of moonsiffs after the system of the Madras provinces. But even in this instance the proposal made to divest the deputy commissioners, who are in immediate executive charge of districts, of civil functions, was negatived, not because the necessity of such separation as regards the public interests was doubted, but that the keeping up of a certain amount of judicial training in these officers was considered of greater importance. It is not intended to call in question the qualifications of revenue officers for judicial work ; on the contrary, a certain amount of revenue training, by the knowledge of landed tenures and customs of the people, and an intimate acquaintance with human character in its varied forms which it brings, has a tendency to enlarge the mind

and to produce a more efficient class of judicial officers than is to be expected from exclusive judicial training. But to secure that strict adherence to law, the habitual regard for justice, and undivided attention to facts, which the interests involved in judicial matters imperatively require, the complete separation of judicial from revenue functions may be regarded as the first essential of a good judicial organisation, and we trust it may ere long be carried into effect in this province.

There will still remain that great drawback in the present system, the risks to which justice is every now and then exposed by the caprice and shortcomings of individual judges, especially at remote stations, not subject to the check of public opinion. This evil often assumes enormous proportions under the loose system of selection to public offices which prevails. But even with the best of selections it is a possible evil which it would be well to provide for, and no arrangement is so well calculated to meet it as that of original and appellate courts composed of more than one judge, who, dividing the work between them, disposing of the smaller suits by a system of circuit courts, and sitting in joint judgment under special circumstances, may be expected to exercise a mutual healthy influence upon each other. Mysore does not possess this advantage even in the composition of its highest court, which, presided over by a single European commissioner, exposes justice even in its highest stage to the chances of individual imperfections. We do not for a moment underrate the nice discriminating judgment which the present head of the Mysore judicial administration brings to his work ; but even the highest specimens of English judges in India cannot but be strengthened by the powers of discerning facts with unerring certainty which honest native coadjutors can bring to their work—an advantage which even the High Courts of the Presidency towns are now beginning to

recognise, and which cannot but be of special value in a province where the training of efficient honest native judges is an essential element of the preparation for future native rule. The system of joint judges has unfortunately been abandoned even in the single instance of the small cause court of Bangalore, in which it was tried for a while but was eventually put an end to by the abolition of the native judge.

The unlimited number of appeals and special appeals is universally condemned as the weakest point in the Indian judicial administration. It is readily accounted for as an evil rendered necessary by the litigious character of the people, as if human nature were different here from what it is elsewhere, and as if it were something unnatural for a party to seek a remedy through all the channels which are open to him, especially when prompted to it by the uncertainties which hang upon justice under the present system. Nothing would so much facilitate the simplification of judicial appeals as an improved constitution of the courts in a manner calculated to command the confidence of the people. An original court of two or more judges in each of the eight districts, taking cognizance of suits up to five thousand rupees, of which there are 20,000 annually in the whole province, with a small cause court jurisdiction in suits up to one hundred rupees, which comprise upwards of three-fourths of the total number of suits, and a single appellate court of three judges at the seat of government, whilst rendering the administration of justice far more prompt, efficient, and certain, would dispense with the necessity of the needless multiplication of civil authority in numerous hands by relieving the amildars, deputy commissioners, and commissioners of divisions of their civil work. The last-named officers might continue to exercise an original jurisdiction in suits of above 5,000 rupees in value, of which there were only 33 in

the whole province in 1871-72. But they could under this arrangement give more time to the even more important work of criminal administration and to the general control of the conduct of servants and other concerns of the divisions. Some simplification of procedure by way of adapting it to the backward condition of the people might also be advantageously made. If the parties to the suit, plaintiffs and defendants, were, according to old custom, compelled to give in the first instance detailed statements of all the facts of their case, it would serve to narrow the field of enquiry and shut out all opening for that shifting of arguments and consequent fabrication of evidence which make the conduct of suits by professional pleaders a matter of speculative gambling not known to, or thought of, by the parties themselves. Greater encouragement should be given to the parties conducting their suits in person or through the means of their relations and friends. The conduct of professional pleaders should be brought under regulation, and the judicial processes preliminary to the enquiry and those connected with the execution of the judgment should receive greater attention. In a word, the tendency to a too great imitation of the system of English courts, where the judge's duty is confined to pronouncing judgment on the arguments advanced by the pleaders on both sides, should be discouraged as unsuited to the circumstances of the country.

Connected with the civil administration is the system of registering documents provided for by the Registration Act of the Supreme Legislature, which has been extended to the Mysore province. This Act for securing what is technically called 'preappointed evidence,' is a necessary measure for the ends of justice and the security of property. But its immense length and complicated provisions, coupled with the serious penalties and risks which the omission or delay to register documents involves, have

converted it into an additional screw for the petty extortions of the public officials. A publication has lately appeared from the pen of a European planter of Mysore, giving his experiences of Indian matters. The insight into the circumstances and character of the natives, and the working of the government machinery, which the stray notes of the writer on various subjects display, contrasts remarkably with the commonplace remarks which one has to wade through in the official publications of Government officers. This lively, thoughtful writer gives his own experiences of the Registration Act. After recounting the hopeless trouble he had to undergo to get some points of the Act explained, he goes on to observe 'that the Registration Manual for Mysore and Coorg, which is now lying on my table, is enough to strike anyone with dismay, and I cannot give a better general idea of it than by informing the reader that it consists of 137 pages, with thirty-four lines to a page, and from ten to twelve words to a line. There are provisions for instruments of which the registration is compulsory, for documents of which the registration is optional, for documents in language not understood by the registering officer, for documents containing interlineations, blanks, erasures, or alterations; and in order that a person ignorant of the law might be the more effectually taken by surprise, it is enacted that in many of the cases where the registration is optional, a registered shall take effect against an unregistered document. In short, the whole Act is one that would perhaps be admirably suited to a country where every man's affairs are in the hands of his legal adviser, and where newspapers are to be found in every village to remind people of what they are or are not to do, but to shoot down such an Act into a province like Mysore, or indeed into any part of India, is an infliction which of itself more than counterbalances all the petty evils and oppressions of a Native State.' How different are these

remarks from the satisfactory results of his inspections which the Registrar-General annually reports! If such are the difficulties of an enlightened English planter, what must be the effect of the Act on the illiterate native ryot? Within five years of its first promulgation this piece of legislation had to undergo a complete re-enactment which in nowise improved it either in regard to its bulk or the complexity of its provisions. What must be the effect of these repeated and complicated legislations upon the illiterate native population can be readily imagined. It may be worthy of consideration whether Government legislation upon this and similar matters would not be considerably improved if it confined itself to the enunciation of the essential principles and requisites of each measure, and left the procedure to be framed according to the wants of each local administration, so as to admit of its alteration and improvement by the results of actual experience. Under such a system the essential principles of each measure, presented to the public separately, would be clearly impressed on their minds, whilst the procedure gradually growing with actual experience would remove the hardships now attendant on the sudden infliction of a long and complicated enactment. These remarks do not apply to the codes of civil and criminal procedure, the importance of which requires that they should be definitely prescribed by the legislature.

We next come to criminal administration. This is based upon the penal code, with the code of criminal procedure and the other laws passed by the Government of India, which have all been extended to the Mysore province. It is impossible not to feel some surprise at the complacency and even admiration with which the working of this theoretic code is usually regarded, without considering its effect on the interests of the people at large. Theoretical minds carried away by the logical perfection of the code forget the evil effects of its artificial

definitions which are not altogether based on the popular train of ideas. Popular definitions admit of a natural expansion to meet every new circumstance, whilst artificial ones stand perpetually under the necessity of artificial expansions which serve only to remove them further from popular thought. It is undeniable that the code is not understood without great effort even by the educated officers of government, and much less carried in their daily train of thoughts. What must be the effect upon the illiterate population of such legislation bearing on their daily concerns! Popular experience can only describe the code as a cruel piece of legislation, which, in its anxiety that no description of offence might possibly be left out, has framed such wide and comprehensive definitions as to mingle serious crimes and mere civil injuries under the same category, and in order that all aggravated cases might be adequately met, has provided for offences exorbitant and often unlimited fines and imprisonments. It has thus placed the peaceful citizen equally with the professional Dacoit perpetually under the tender mercies of a not immaculate official hierarchy. No one can be sure that any momentary indiscreet act of his might not bring him under the grasp of the penal code, and in so bringing him, consign him to a punishment which to him may be a social death, under the prevailing ideas of religion and custom. Compare the punishments awarded for the same offences in different districts, by the considerate English judges of a Presidency court, and some fast-going judges in a corner of the Mofussil, professing abhorrence to the venality of the native character; you will find what an opening for capricious and barbarous punishments the code affords. Where there is such unlimited latitude for punishment, it is vain to expect that it will be properly exercised. The administration on the other hand, in having to deal with the statistics of such a complicated catalogue of offences, numbering in Mysore

20,000 annually, is apt to lose sight of the extent and effect of the heinous and more dangerous crimes, whilst the subordinate officers charged with the peace of the country meet with a constant temptation to neglect the more arduous duty of detecting these crimes for the more profitable dabbling in the minor quasi-criminal offences. A simpler code, keeping to popular ideas of crime, with certainty rather than severity of punishment in all ordinary cases, with exceptional powers confined to special courts, is the real want of the country.

These results of criminal administration in British territories become aggravated in a provincial administration like that of Mysore, with no public opinion and less carefully selected officers, and where further, the functions of the police and the administration of criminal justice are placed in the same hands. Strangely for such provinces the legislature makes a special provision to enhance the powers of the magistrates of districts to those of Assistant Sessions Judges, with seven years' imprisonment, a provision which, as a matter of course, has been availed of in Mysore. Conceive the effect of the magistrate of a district, urged on by the government to the detection of crime on the one hand, and exercising the power of convicting the prisoners brought before him on the other! What inducement may it not afford for false convictions and a clean sheet of undetected crime?

A new police, organised after the Mofussil police of the Madras Presidency and under European supervision, costing a lac and a half of rupees per annum, was introduced into the town and district of Bangalore in 1868-69, and even before sufficient experience of its results could be obtained, the necessity of its extension under European supervision to the rest of the province was urged in successive reports as the only remedy for the present defective state of things. But a sudden revelation seems to have come upon the authorities in 1871-72, in the annual

report of which it was stated that 23 per cent. in that year and 50 per cent. in the previous one of the officers and men of this force had to be punished magisterially and departmentally for offences and irregularities. Such has been and must always be the effect of these new organisations, which, rudely superseding old establishments that at least had the merit of traditional ideas of duty and responsibility, attempt to build up new departments with stray materials of all classes, without a character or a tradition about them, and into which the fluctuating European supervision of the present day is found totally inadequate to infuse the necessary moral force. Fortunately this unexpected result has moderated the desire for the further extension of the system to remote parts, where a force of this description might prove an unchecked source of oppression. The hope of reforming the police administration came thenceforward to be placed upon an improved village police, and an energetic head of the judicial administration who deservedly earned the credit of having roused the district officers to a sense of duty in this important matter, unfortunately lighted upon the strange idea of effecting the reform by means of multifarious reports and returns and instructions borrowed from a code intended for an organised police. These have proved an infliction on the District and Taluk authorities, taking away much of their time which could more usefully be devoted to the actual detection of crime. To the uneducated village police the instructions must simply prove unintelligible. Those who deal with this question lose sight of the fact that an organised police rests on rules and instructions, and a rural police upon moral force. But this is not promoted by subjecting the village officers to the double action of a police inspector and a revenue amildar, and much less by converting the village headman into the last link in the chain of oppressing officials, instead of being the sympathising represen-

tative and spokesman for the villagers and the village interests at large. The combination of police and magisterial functions in the revenue officers is of course open to objection, but real improvement will be effected by taking away from them the magisterial powers in all but the smaller cases, rather than the police functions which form a natural part of their administrative duty. Under the arrangement of separate civil courts already suggested, the Commissioner of the Division, supplemented if necessary by an assistant in each district, can well discharge the whole of the sessions and a considerable portion of the higher magisterial work, to the relief of the district officers and to the great security of the subject. The addition of any magisterial or sessions work to civil courts would be an undesirable measure, as varied authority has always the tendency to deteriorate the character and efficiency of such courts, especially in the lower grades.

Arrangements also exist in the central jail at Bangalore for giving the convicted criminal a reformatory course of prison discipline according to the latest principles. The experiment, though in every way well conducted, is rather expensive, and may perhaps after all not prove so effectual under a system which groups together under the same treatment criminals of all social positions and classes, and of all shades of guilt, from the professional Dacoit to the peaceful citizen betrayed in a moment of indiscretion into the quasi-criminal offences in which the penal code abounds. The average annual cost of each prisoner, which was before 1866-67, 39 rupees, has now risen to 87 rupees, or 7·4 rupees a month—the earnings of a labourer in the provinces for the support of himself and family being only 3 or 4 rupees. The above cost does not include the large sums spent in the construction and repairs of jails. What needlessly adds to the cost of jail management is the extension of this expensive system

to all the districts of the province, almost every one of which has been provided with a most costly jail, an estimate of thirty-six thousand rupees being now made for a similar building at Hassan, the only station which has hitherto been denied the honour, although it has only a population of 6,000, and an average daily of 26 prisoners only.

We now pass on to the administrative departments of the government, of which that relating to the management of the revenue is the most important. The revenue of the province now amounts to 105 lacs of rupees, at which figure it has stood for some years past, and there is no likelihood of any great fluctuations in the future. In fact, the effect of that great upheaval which has taken place consequent upon the sudden increase of prices, and which, with prosperity to the ryot, brought an increase of revenue to the government, directly by the increased value of the governmental share of the produce under the then prevailing *bottayee*, or division of the crop system, and indirectly by the stimulus which it gave to increased cultivation and to the improvement of the other resources from which the revenue is derived. We say that these effects attained their maximum some time back, and that in the future there is more prospect of a fall in prices rather than otherwise. Of this revenue, about seventy-two lacs is derived from the land, viz. 30 lacs from dry, 25 from wet, and $11\frac{1}{2}$ from garden, the remainder being yielded by the rent of pastures, excise on coffee, and other miscellaneous items. The wet land derives its irrigation from the several *annicuts* across the Cauvery and other rivers, constructed entirely under the native governments in an ingenious and inexpensive manner, by taking advantage of natural barriers in the beds of the rivers, and from numerous tanks, to which the large expenditure of more recent days has added little or nothing. The rice crop which is raised on this description of land is almost en-

tirely consumed within the province. Sugar-cane cultivation, which is carried on in the superior soils, has sustained a check from the high prices of grain, but it will always form an important element of the wealth of the province. The crops raised on dry lands, except a very small quantity of cotton grown in a single district, consist entirely of the ordinary grains forming the food of the population, and of which, with the exception of oil-seeds, little is exported. The produce of silk from mulberry is on the decline, but there is a considerable extent of garden cultivation, consisting of areca-nut and cocoa-nut plantations, which form valuable articles of export. There are also considerable forest resources, and the cultivation of coffee has added a new source of wealth.

The bottayee, or crop-sharing system, having been gradually commuted into money, the lands of the province for many years enjoyed the benefit of a fixed money assessment, but as the assessment was based on imperfect measurements, it did not afford sufficient security to the ryot from the extortions of petty officials. A land survey and revenue settlement, therefore, formed one of the elements of the organising process which commenced in 1862. It was wisely resolved not to borrow the system from Madras, where the survey operations, divided between totally independent departments, one for the demarcation of the fields and for the eventual settlement of the revenue, and the other for measurement, have got into a muddle from which the work has never extricated itself, but the requisite agency was obtained from Bombay, which has at least the credit of showing finished results. The department was organised in 1862-63, when it was calculated that the settlement would occupy twenty years. Up to the end of 1871-72, *i.e.* in nine years, the settlement was completed in eleven out of eighty-one Taluks of the province, and it was in progress in seventeen more, so that, allowing for even a higher rate of progress in future,

the work may not be got through within twenty or twenty-five years from this date. The advantages of these operations consist in the security which they give to individual holdings, by the measurement and mapping of the lands, and the fixity and moderation of the assessment. The former is a mechanical work which is easily accomplished; but the fixing of a fair and equitable assessment is a delicate task, in which, though perfect equality is not to be hoped for, it is of the greatest importance that all the circumstances affecting the question should be fully and thoroughly considered from every point of view, so as to secure a sufficiently fair and, what is more important, a moderate assessment. It does not appear that, though the survey has been in operation for nine years, its results have been tested by an independent examination by any able officers of local experience, such as would be thought necessary especially in the face of general complaints of over-assessment and oppression. The reports of the survey officers, and the results of their work, would seem to receive no more scrutiny than a mere formal sanction by the head of the administration and a few vague lucubrations in the annual reports. It is not advocated that the practised judgment of the officers who superintend these operations should systematically be subordinated to the opinions of the local revenue authorities, except in so far as an independent opinion may serve to correct the errors incidental to the exclusive departmental view of the matter, however able. It is also true that a great deal of the complaints in these matters emanates from the jealousies of conflicting departments, and from the grievances of influential landholders who may have been deprived of their undue advantages by the operations of the survey. Further, the absence of any sudden expansion of cultivation consequent upon the survey settlement cannot in itself be taken as a test of heavy assessment, as such extension of cultivation can

only take place under the influence of favourable prices, a strong sense of property, and greater life and activity in the agricultural population than at present exists. But there is room for some misgiving that in fixing an assessment equal to, and in some cases in excess of the present revenue, which has doubled within the last twenty years under the influence of exceptionally high prices, an assessment, too, which is subject to further additions for local cesses of about 6 per cent. on all lands, and about 12 per cent. on the wet, the circumstances of the province as an inland country not possessing easy or cheap access to the great markets on the sea-coasts, have not been given the weight due to them; and that the principle of moderation which was the chief merit of the Bombay settlements is being abandoned under the retrograde ideas of land taxation which have of late gained currency amongst Indian authorities. An assessment thus fixed at a rate which can be only paid under the most favourable circumstances of price is open to the risk of breaking down under a fall of prices not altogether unlikely, and must therefore be regarded as a maximum rather than a perpetual assessment suited for average and even unfavourable years.

The assessment fixed is to last for thirty years. This principle of thirty-years' duration of assessments was originally introduced in the village settlements of the North-West Provinces, where it was naturally considered undesirable to surrender for ever the revenue derivable from the large extent of waste lands, though even here the principle could not be upheld without qualification. It was subsequently adopted in the totally different ryotwar, or rather field-war, settlements of the Bombay Presidency, guided by the teachings of Mill in regard to the tendency of land perpetually to increase in value irrespective of any improvements made to it, and the consequent right of government to derive a benefit from such

increased value, though it is a very remote contingency under the present circumstances of India. The theory has been supported by arguments derived from the fact of the revenue of wet lands having been originally paid in kind, as if this arrangement were not intended for the convenience of the ryot, owing to the greater fluctuations of wet produce and the still greater uncertainties of demand for them in the former days of no trade, and as if the much wider extent of dry land had not always paid a fixed-money assessment. It is forgotten that this principle totally controverts the now generally recognised theory of the land assessment being a government tax and not a landlord's rent. There is no greater fallacy than the supposition that the thirty-years' assessments ought to be better in regard to the security of the ryots than the annual assessments of former days. These annual assessments are simply intended to enable the ryots to make the necessary alterations in the extent of their holdings, but are in principle as undoubtedly a permanent invariable assessment as any settlement can possibly be, subject only to the extraordinary right of government to put on additional burdens, chiefly in the shape of cesses to meet extraordinary demands, or, as under the circumstances of the present day, to derive additionally an income-tax from the profits of the land as from other sources of income. This ancient theory is sounder in principle and of greater practical value than any arbitrary periods for the duration of assessments such as proposed in the present surveys. Indeed, if the principle of thirty-years' duration could work itself into the people's minds so as to supersede their traditionary ideas of the permanency of the government assessment, it cannot but have an unsettling effect on them. To the Indian ryot, who is a landholder not a farmer, permanency and not a long lease possesses a charm. The operation of this novel principle will have a singular effect in Mysore.

As the survey is calculated to occupy thirty years, the settlement first made will fall in as the work is brought to a close; and if the apprehensions too readily conceived of the rapacity of native rule have any foundation, matters would be again thrown into confusion, or call for the services of a fresh settlement department.

A question more pertinent to our present purpose is how this establishment, whose work is not likely to come to a close within the next 20 or 25 years, is to be treated at the approaching restoration of the province to native rule. Mr. Bowring, who in his Eastern experiences considers that the operations of the survey afford the only effectual protection of the cultivators against the rapacity of the Rajah's officials hereafter, is of opinion that the establishment should continue to complete the work. But as the continuance of such an extensive European agency under native rule cannot but be open to objection, the question naturally arises why the natives, who have always been distinguished for ability in revenue settlements, and who possess peculiar aptitude and facility for dealing with the various questions connected with the subject, should not be trained for the work? The exclusive European agency at present employed in the Mysore Survey consists of the Survey and Settlement Commissioner, a Superintendent and Deputy Superintendent of Survey, with 15 European officers under them, who, with the subordinate native agency, cost two lacs per annum. Several of the officers on the list appear to have been selected not for any previous knowledge of the work, but simply to have been taken on for the purpose of training. The Settlement Commissioner, in his report for 1870-71, observes, 'A good deal was done in the way of consolidation and acquiring experience, whereas in the case of the Mysore Revenue Survey a large proportion of the *personnel* is comparatively young and of small experience; a period of comparative check in growth is both valuable

and necessary.' Surely a similar training of natives could not have been impossible and may not yet be too late.

Another establishment organised with the object of giving greater security to landed tenures and of securing the revenue interests of government is the Inám Commission for the investigation and settlement of Inám tenures. The work of this Commission, both in its principles and procedure, can only be described as a servile imitation of the Madras system, with its faults and excellences. The great principle of the Madras Inám settlement consisted in what was called the enfranchisement of the Inám tenures, *i.e.*, converting these tenures, which were held more or less subject to restrictive conditions or on invalid title, into absolute saleable property in return for an annual payment to government as quitrent of a portion of the assessable value of the lands. This brought some addition to the government revenue, but what was more important, it converted this large mass of landed property, which was lying valueless under restrictions formerly existing, into productive property of the highest kind. But there was no special virtue in the procedure adopted in Madras. On the contrary, though the varied circumstances of an extensive Presidency necessitated the organisation of a separate establishment for dealing with Inám tenures in Madras, doubts were even there entertained in regard to the comparative advantages of the investigation and registry of Ináms by such a separate agency without local knowledge and with all the risks of error attendant on the preparation of English registers of Ináms by them, and of their examination and revision in a central office. The work to be done is more a simple registration than an investigation, and it is particularly so in Mysore, where the enquiry into the heirs of the present incumbents of the Ináms for the purpose of regulating thereby the terms

of enfranchisement has been abandoned for uniform rates variable only with the validity of the tenures. As complete registers of all Ináms in the province, valid and unauthorised, have been prepared at various times, the settlement, if a few rules in regard to terms of enfranchisement were laid down, could be easily completed by the district authorities in the course of one or two annual settlements upon the basis of the vernacular registers, and confirmed by vernacular title-deeds which will be appreciated just as well as the more pompous but less intelligible English deeds, the crotchet of the Madras system. But as if to justify the retention of a separate agency the Mysore Inám Commission, unlike that of Madras, was till recently vested with a civil jurisdiction in claims relating to Ináms, occasioning considerable inconvenience and needless complications. The treatment of excess in the Inám holdings, the main difficulty of the question, has in any case to be postponed for the operations of the survey.

We now pass to a cursory notice of the items of revenue other than the land-tax, in order to illustrate the principles which govern their management. Coffee, which is the only item of wealth added to the resources of the country under British management, entirely by private enterprise, and the cultivation of which, both in the province and to a much larger extent in the adjoining British territories, affords an outlet for native labour, pays in Mysore an excise duty of four annas per maund in lieu of a land-tax, the amount so contributed to the revenue in 1871-72 being 75,000 rupees on 3,800 tons. This system, however desirable to encourage a new enterprise at its commencement, is attended with too many disadvantages to form the best permanent revenue arrangement. It affords a premium for careless and slovenly cultivation, proves burdensome to the industrious, and is open to all the corrupting influences of fraud and evasion

of duty attendant on an excise tax. The extent of land under coffee cultivation by Europeans is given as 32,000 acres, and that by natives as 78,000 acres, the latter exceeding the former in the proportion of about two and a half to one, whilst the annual produce of coffee on native estates which pays duty is about five times the quantity charged with the excise as the yield of European plantations. These apparently inconsistent results, notwithstanding the charge of apathy and slovenliness which are freely bestowed on the native planters, are repeated in successive annual reports, without any attempt to explain why the European produce should prove so deficient in comparison with the native. Whether it results from simple evasion of duty by the European planters, or from their taking up extensive lands of which portions alone they are able to bring under cultivation, or from the small patches of native coffee cultivation not being brought on the acreage returns, or from the combined operation of all these causes, it is obvious that a system which gives scope to such a state of things stands in need of correction.

An excise duty much heavier in amount is also levied on several other products of the province, viz. areca-nut (480,000 rupees), tobacco (120,000 rupees), cocoa-nuts (37,000 rupees), betel leaves (44,000 rupees), pepper (3,000 rupees), cardamoms (4,000 rupees), and opium (9,000 rupees). This duty is collected not in lieu of, but in addition to, a generally heavy garden assessment on the lands on which the products are raised. The system of taxing special valuable products, or the trees on which they are grown, after they come into bearing, is one long familiar to native governments, and still obtains in the western coast districts of the Madras Presidency, though now generally condemned on account of the frauds and irregularities with which the collection of the tax is attended. It is supposed to carry with it the recom-

mentation of encouraging the cultivation of these products by total exemption from tax while they are in growth, and of afterwards securing from them a high revenue. But Mysore alone enjoys the credit of putting on the tax in addition to a land assessment, a system which no principles of revenue administration can be found to support. The situation of Mysore as an inland province precludes it from deriving an easy customs revenue. Land customs on an extensive frontier would be not only difficult of collection, but would clash with the more enlightened policy adopted in the surrounding British territories, and the excise under the circumstances seems to have been clung to as the only means of recouping the State for a customs revenue which it cannot otherwise derive. But a policy which thus places the only exportable products of the province under exceptional disadvantages in comparison with the produce of the British territories cannot be sound; but the most objectionable features of these taxes consist in the opportunities for fraud and petty oppression and needless establishments which they give rise to, and in a great measure without any adequate return to government, for by far the greatest portion of this source of revenue is derived from the areca-nut cultivation of a few Meulnaud or Hill Taluks of the Nugger division, which in their situation and climate enjoy exceptional advantages similar to those of the western coast for this description of cultivation. What little tobacco is raised in the province is mostly confined to a few Taluks adjoining the Western Ghauts. The duty realised in the rest of the province and on the other articles is quite insignificant, and only proves a source of petty interference and oppression.

If the loss of revenue from this source is considered too great a sacrifice for the government to undergo, cannot the sphere of its incidents be restricted to the few Taluks where the areca-nut is grown under exceptional

advantages, and where it may perhaps be found possible to convert the tax into a high rate of assessment on the land itself, instead of spreading such a corrupting element of taxation over the whole province, and extending it to several other articles which are more or less unproductive of revenue? How strangely does the policy of the Mysore government in this respect contrast with the liberal principles of taxation which even native governments, under native management, are beginning to adopt. The Maharajah of Travancore surrendered for the benefit of his people his proprietary right in a considerable extent of land known as Sirkar Patams—a right quite distinct from, and possessing more reality, than the vague claims of landlord now-a-days advanced on behalf of the Indian governments to lands in general, and partaking more of the character of the rights of feudal lords in their private domains. His Highness further abolished the tobacco monopoly, and reduced the import duties on the article at a cost to the State of four or five lacs of rupees per annum, whilst the Cochin Sirkar went the length of giving up the duty altogether.

Besides the above taxes on land and agricultural products, taxes are levied in Mysore on houses (150,000 rupees), shops (85,000 rupees), looms (75,000), oil mills (13,000 rupees), carts (34,000 rupees), and cloths of local manufacture (50,000 rupees). The tax on houses is collected at rates varying from eight annas to twelve rupees per house upon 141,000 houses only out of a total number of a million houses in the province, the remainder being exempted as belonging either to the agricultural population, or to special classes of inhabitants who from immemorial custom have been exempt from the tax. Any practised revenue administrator can readily conceive the irregularities attendant on the operation of such a partial tax, with the wide latitude which is given in the discrimination of what constitutes the agricultural

population ; whether it embraces the copartners, tenants, or outdoor and household servants of the agriculturists, and who form the special classes entitled to exemption ; and further in the assessment of rates so widely ranging as from eight annas to twelve rupees. The other items of tax are open to objection chiefly on account of the small amounts realised from them. But a tax on looms, and another on the cloths manufactured out of those looms, afford a striking example of the manner in which local manufactures and local resources are encouraged and developed by the government, not to mention the frauds and corruption with which an excise duty such as that on cloths must be attended. The tax on carts is unjust if levied on the agriculturists, who pay a separate local cess for the maintenance of the roads : and if they are to be exempted the tax carries with it all the objectionable features attendant on the assessment of the house-tax as already described. Considering that the country at large is purely agricultural in its character, and that the intention of most of the above taxes is to reach the non-agricultural population who contribute nothing to the support of government, how much relief from petty annoyance could be afforded to the people at large without any sacrifice of the government revenue, if the above taxes were restricted as municipal sources of revenue to towns, where alone they would prove really productive, and where their operation can be better brought under check. But the principle of releasing the ryots as far as practicable from the trammels of the petty officials has made no progress, and perhaps has no existence in the policy of the British administration of Mysore, which seems to be only remarkable for the tenacity with which it clings to small items of revenue on the one hand, and on the other for the extravagance with which it wastes the revenue in organising useless establishments.

The people of Mysore owe entirely to the British administration the introduction of a tax on litigation in the form of heavy court fee stamps (230,000 rupees), besides stamp duties on all documents executed (190,000 rupees), and fees for their registration (21,000 rupees), all after the forms brought into force in British territories of recent years.

The item of revenue, however, which has attained the highest development, and still continues to progress both in Mysore and elsewhere, is what is called the Abkari, which consists of a tax on the consumption of spirituous liquors. The rapid growth of the vice of drunkenness—a vice formerly unknown to all but a few miscellaneous classes, chiefly of town population,—is one of the most important questions which can engage the attention of the well-wishers of society. The government have hitherto looked upon the question too exclusively as one of revenue, and the rapid growth of the evil, as indicated by the increasing revenue from this source, has never seriously engaged their attention; and if their thought has ever been given to it at all, they have consoled themselves with the idea that an enhanced rate of duty affords the only possible check on drunkenness.

The Abkari embraces two separate articles. Toddy, which is a fermented liquor drawn elsewhere from Palmyra and cocoa-nut trees, but in Mysore exclusively from the date, when fresh and unadulterated, and indulged in in moderate quantities, affords a nutritious beverage to the poorer classes of the population. As the liquor is drawn from trees which are scattered all over the country, the revenue derivable from it is difficult of direct management by government officers. The monopoly of the sale of the article has therefore of late years been rented out. Under this system the revenue or rent payable to government being fixed, it becomes the interest of the renter to extend the sale and consumption of the

article as much as possible, as every such extension is so much pure gain to himself. Sometimes, with the desire of checking this tendency on the part of the renters, government give out the rents, not to the highest bidder, but upon a system of sealed tenders, or by a private arrangement, which only opens a door to jobbery and shuts out the government from that increase of the revenue which is elsewhere derived under a system of open honest competition; and for no adequate object, for there cannot be a more fallacious idea than that the mode of giving the rent can at all affect the natural desire of the renter to derive the highest income from his contract.

Arrack, the other source of the Abkari revenue, is a spirit distilled from jaggery, excessive indulgence in which brings more ruinous consequences upon the native constitution. This branch of revenue is now managed under what is called the Sudder distillery system. The stills for the manufacture of the article are established at head-quarter stations, within enclosed premises, under the supervision of government officers. The arrack required for sale is supplied from these stills on the payment of a duty to government upon the quantity taken out. The government tax thus bears upon the actual consumption, and it can be increased to such an extent as to prove a serious restriction to the consumers, though, where the unfortunate men, as is usually the case, are irresistibly led to indulge in the evil, the effect of any such increase of price may be simply to add to their own ruin the ruin of their family and their property. The evils incident to the Sudder distillery system are the opportunities which it offers to smuggling in connivance with the government servants having the supervision of the distilleries, and the tendency it has to bring into general consumption the stronger spirits which are so ruinous to the native constitution. Arrack

at present pays in Mysore a still-head duty of 1-8 rupees per gallon. The cost, with reasonable profits of manufacture, ought to be much under 1 rupee, but under a system which places no restriction upon the seller in regard to price, the article is sold to the unfortunate consumer at 4 rupees per gallon. There can be no free trade in the restricted sphere of a monopoly, and in a case like this, so deeply affecting the vital interests of the people, it is not only proper but is the duty of the government to assume more directly the responsibility of supplying to the people at reasonable prices such a description of the article as is not likely to prove ruinous to their health; and if this is supplemented by a greater attention to the restriction of the number of shops, the hours of sale, the quality and quantity of the article sold, points which, though always forming essential elements in Abkari administration, are not now sufficiently attended to, under false ideas of free trade, some check to the spread of the evil may be hoped for.

Some features in the management of this branch of revenue not necessarily connected with it, point to that want of regard for the convenience of the people which unfortunately so characterises the Mysore administration. The renters of the toddy contract need only possess a monopoly in the sale of the article, but in Mysore they are also given the monopoly of all the date trees in the province, and the cultivators of land are, under severe penalties, prohibited from cutting them without permission—a permission which, it need hardly be said, is not easily obtained. The unfortunate landholders, in their struggles to clear their lands from the rank and wild growth of these trees, are led into no end of difficulties and petty oppression. The more proper system would of course be to give the renters only the use of the date groves on government lands, and

to leave them to make their terms with ryots or landholders for any more toddy that may be required from trees situated on their lands. This would in no way diminish the government revenue, but such measures for releasing the ryots from needless restrictions do not seem to enter into the policy of the government, and even when their principle is recognised, their necessity is not sufficiently felt to bring them into practical operation. But not only the price of the date trees, even their leaves are given in monopoly, for the insignificant revenue of fifteen hundred rupees in one division, thereby placing a considerable number of the poorer population, who live by the sale of mats made from these leaves, under the tender mercies of the renter.

The extensive dense forests along the slopes and the base of the Western Ghats, containing teak and other valuable timber for building purposes, as well as the smaller jungles more inland, which yield large quantities of sandal wood, an important item of the wealth of the province, belong to government, and for the better security of their rights in them, government assumed and still continue to claim, a monopoly of the above descriptions of timber, which wherever grown, whether on public or private lands, become the absolute property of the State. This system necessarily conflicts with private rights in lands, and the government seem to be so far alive to the fact that in the Taluks lately brought under survey they have, in view to free the cultivator from all future interference, ordered the reserved description of trees situated on private lands to be felled, a work which entails no small amount of labour on the department in charge of forests. How does this contrast with the system pursued in the adjoining British territories, where the government do not find it necessary for the protection of their jungle trees to interdict the growth of the same description of timber on private lands as private pro-

perty. The monopoly, however, does not occasion much practical evil in the case of teak and other timber, the growth of which is confined to the denser jungles where there is very little private land, but it proves very injurious in the case of sandal wood. This valuable tree is very capricious in the choice of soils and positions for its growth. It does not thrive much in dense jungles or in thick plantations, but grows more scattered in the thinner jungles and on the edges of rich and well-cultivated lands. But as the cultivator can have no interest in a tree which is considered solely the property of government, and the growth of which only proves to him a source of annoyance and risk at the hands of the government officials, it becomes his constant endeavour to root out the plant the moment it germinates, and thus an extensive destruction of this important item of wealth takes place. Without wholly abandoning the government monopoly in sandal, matters might be much improved if the cultivators were encouraged to grow the trees on their lands, on the condition of delivering them exclusively to government at a fixed half-price.

With the view of securing greater efficiency in the management of these government forests, they have of late years been placed under a separate establishment. The remote situation of these dense forests and the great waste which was taking place in them by indiscriminate felling, undoubtedly called for the undivided attention of a special agency for their protection; and if three or four good working men, of real forest experience, were appointed each to one of these large forests, some useful results might be expected in the way of their better conservancy, of facilitating their natural reproduction and of gaining real forest experience. The smaller jungles, more within the reach of the village population, might continue to be managed more cheaply and with less inconvenience to the people by the ordinary revenue offi-

cials, aided by such new knowledge as the professional forest men might from time to time be able to give out to the world. But unfortunately the want of a small special working agency really felt, has been permitted to develop itself into a large administrative machinery, with the usual result of vague useless speculations, experiments imperfectly tried and abandoned, and real work giving way for useless reporting and show of administration, and expensive establishments opening a door to patronage and the appointment of young gentlemen of *liberal education*—amateur foresters, who are expected to pick up stray knowledge as they grow, and develop a passion for administrative authority instead of real work. This newly created establishment already consists of a conservator and seven European assistants, mostly employed in administrative work, with sub-assistant conservators, forest rangers, and other working establishments, costing 72,000 rupees per annum; and the forest revenue of the province for 1871–72, amounting to 320,000 rupees, which is derived by the sale of the timber in the market, and which used formerly to be secured with little cost to government, has now to bear a charge in establishments and expenses of 160,000 rupees, or 50 per cent. But as the assistant conservators cannot be long content to do honest work on their present pay of 250 and 350 rupees, while their fellows of the same social standing in the revenue administration draw from 1,000 to 1,500 rupees, the next stage of increase of salaries may be soon expected to come about; and as measures for taking over all the district forests under the forest department, with of course additional establishments, have also received sanction, very little of the revenue from this source can be expected to remain to government. And we may perhaps hereafter be told that it is useful thus to lay out the whole revenue in the development of the forest resources for the future benefit of the Maharajah's government.

The annual report of the conservator of forests for 1871-72 is an instructive document. It is of course, as all these reports are, too long and too full of figures to be easily mastered. One section of the report tells us what additions have been made to the State forests, not by new plantations, but by the simple process of demarcating and transferring already existing forests from the revenue department to forest supervision. Another section shows how the measures adopted for the forest conservancy have developed into forest offences for the benefit of the people. A third section is devoted to explaining what improvements and new roads have been made to secure easy access to the forests, and for making which the overgrown public works establishments would seem to have no time. Elsewhere we are told how a firmer grasp has been laid on the miscellaneous products of the jungles, though not altogether without inconvenience or hardship to the people, as pointed out in the writings of a coffee planter, to which reference has already been made. But the description of the main works of the department, viz., the progress made in plantations and in promoting reproduction of forests by artificial and natural means, is, we are sorry to state, one continued account of experiments which have been tried and failed. After narrating how the teak plantations attempted in several places have for the most part failed, how nearly all the seedlings of the *Eucalyptus* planted out have perished, how the capricious sandal refuses to be nurtured by the not over affectionate care of a government establishment, such of the seeds as germinate dying away in the first hot weather, and this whether the seeds are sown by dibbling under natural shade or along with chilli seed in well ploughed ground, how the fuel plantations tried farther from the hills have perished even more completely, nearly all the plants which have been grown by seeds put down in pits or by the transplanting of

seedlings having perished, the honest conservator goes on to make the following remarks on this part of the subject.

‘It is now little more than a year since the first of these plantations was enclosed, and it is perhaps early to speak of them definitely. The results, however, are not satisfactory. Nurseries have been formed at all the plantations, and seeds sown in pits over an area of some 1,650 acres, in addition to which some 30,000 seedlings were planted out from nurseries, but the number of the casualties was great. The Taluks where fuel has to be grown for railway purposes are as a rule blessed with but a scanty rainfall; we have no means of irrigating our plantations, and it is of course out of the question to expect to be able to water such large areas by hand. Almost all the land taken up is covered with brushwood and bushes. . . . It is true that if cattle are rigidly excluded, and the grass cleared away from young trees, the natural reproduction on these lands, as evidenced at the Jadiginahalli plantation, is good; but it is not sufficient, and it will certainly not do to rely on such alone. The more I look at the subject the more certain it appears to me that to grow fuel successfully will entail a far heavier expenditure than at first appeared necessary. The ground must be worked either by the plough or by digging sufficiently large holes (not less than three feet cube) to ensure the seedlings growing well. Excepting in a small portion of the plantations it is impossible to work a plough owing to the brushwood on the ground, and to remove this brushwood would entail an enormous expenditure. Ploughs are this year being used wherever practicable, and I shall be able within the next three weeks to lay a special report on these matters before the Chief Commissioner for his consideration and orders.’

What else can be expected under the circumstances? However feasible these plantations may be found in the

jungles of the western coast districts, under the influence of the heavy rains which they enjoy, although even there the expense of government plantations must generally turn out to be disproportionately high, such jungle plantations without irrigation are attended with serious disadvantages on this side of the Ghauts, where the rainfall is so scanty, and this is more so farther away from the Ghaut ranges, where the fuel is more wanted than in their immediate vicinity. And after all, how little these doubtful efforts of government, even where successful, could add to the immense virgin forests which already exist. Would not the government do well to confine themselves to the strict conservancy of the existing jungles, allowing them thereby every facility for natural reproduction as far as the diminished rains of the present day as compared with former times will admit, to open out easy means of access to them for the cheap supply of fuel to the more distant Taluks, and for the rest to give every encouragement to the cultivators to raise fuel and timber on their lands with all that care, with irrigation where necessary, which they alone can be trusted to give? Unfortunately the last is necessarily a slow process in the present circumstances of Mysore, where the petty oppressions and interferences of government officials and a narrow policy on the part of government have hitherto proved unfavourable to the growth of a sense of property and a feeling of independence in the minds of the landholders. The above suggestions would, as already explained, reduce the necessity of a separate establishment to the conservancy and working of the few large forests only, and perhaps to the working of one or two experimental jungles. Yet in the face of all the foregoing facts, would it be believed that proposals for the forest department taking over charge of all the smaller district forests, with an endless opening for additional establishments, have been made and sanctioned, in

order perhaps that they may have an opportunity of trying in these more sterile tracts the experiments which failed in the more favoured regions nearer the Ghaut ranges! The conservator winds up his long report with a notice of the inconvenience experienced from frequent changes in the staff of the European officers, owing of course to leave and other usual causes, and of the great increase of office work, both in the way of correspondence and the examination of returns and accounts, thereby no doubt indicating the want of a personal assistant and some additional establishments, the usual sequel of all these departmental organisations.

In no instance has the passion for departmental organisation attained such development as in the case of the public works. This department, which in the days of Sir Mark Cubbon consisted of only a few engineering officers, working entirely through native agency, has now risen to enormous proportions. It comprises, in each of the eight districts into which the province is divided, a staff of engineers for buildings and roads, and a separate one for irrigation works, besides a third minor staff for the superintendence of the river channels. It consists in all of no less than thirty engineering officers, besides a large subordinate grade, all of whom are Europeans, there being only a few natives in the lower grades. The annual cost of these establishments is about 450,000 rupees, whilst the annual expenditure on public works which they superintend is 800,000 rupees, the former being in the proportion of more than 50 per cent. to the latter. It is a fact worthy of note, and it is true generally in India, that the useful work done by a department varies inversely with the dimensions which it assumes. Some considerable additions of public buildings have been made to the province, viz., the public offices at Bangalore, and a number of jails, some hospitals, school houses, &c. But in works of more immediate use to the

public the progress made in recent years contrasts unfavourably with what had been accomplished in the days of Sir Mark Cubbon,—days of few engineers and cheap native agency. The excellent roads upon which the province can justly pride itself was the work of the last-mentioned period. The subsequent additions made, save one or two large bridges, have been quite inconsiderable, the largest expenditure of recent years on communications being chiefly devoted to the upkeep of the already existing roads, portions of even these being gradually made over to the district revenue authorities for maintenance. The extent of roads now maintained in repair by the public works department amounts to only 2,000 miles. Under the head of irrigation works the later additions have been quite inconsiderable, compared with the already existing native works in the province, both in the way of tanks and annicuts across the beds of rivers for irrigation purposes. The Srirama Devar Annicut, built across the Hevalli river, in the place of old ruined ones, is an excellent work of recent days, but the cost, it is believed, is too large to make it a very remunerative undertaking, especially when taken together with the money which is being still expended upon the subsidiary channels which are considered necessary. Another annicut was built across the Muddoor river, commanding an irrigable area assessed at about 10,000 rupees, of which, however, a considerable portion lies waste, owing, it is supposed, to heavy assessment. More than a lac of rupees have been spent on the improvement of the channel of the large native-built Soolakaray tank. But the work, owing to fever, scanty population, and other causes, does not seem to have been taken advantage of to any considerable extent for purposes of cultivation, and the survey department now hope to improve matters by the bait of a low assessment for four or five years, with the certainty of a

heavy assessment following. Altogether, the absence of any statements of reproductive works among the annual returns would seem to show that the administration has not much to claim credit for in this direction, whilst the repairs of existing tanks have been, and are still being, to a large extent executed by the district revenue authorities.

Under such circumstances it might be imagined that sufficient grounds existed for carrying out a reduction in this overgrown establishment, which is a matter of such obvious necessity for facilitating the restoration of the province to native rule. But one is surprised and astonished to find that the department has now suddenly embarked upon a new career which would seem to justify its continuance, and even extension, without any limit of time. They care not to deal any longer in large and important projects, upon which it was usually thought their scientific knowledge could be brought to bear with advantage. They have taken to the humbler task of repairing systematically in series the large number of tanks with which the province abounds, and raising them gradually to a fixed standard of safety. Their proposals for this object would seem to have received the sanction of government. We are not acquainted with the line of argument used in support of the scheme, but one argument used we are aware of, which might raise a smile in the uninitiated reader, but which would seem to have proved a stopgap to any objections on the part of the government. It was seriously argued that, if a department of revenue survey were to lay their grasp on the country for the next twenty or thirty years for the unproductive work of measuring and re-assessing the land, is there not greater reason why the department of public works should not quit their hold on the province until they could see all the productive irrigation works, small and great, placed upon a fixed standard of safety! How

could the government, with their ideas of a country thirsting for water, resist this solemn appeal made to them? The question does not, however, seem to have been carried without discussion or a dissentient voice. In the administration report for 1868-69, Mr. Bowring, referring to an application made by him for the services of a maistry for each Taluk, makes the following remarks:—

‘ The amount applied for was moderate, and the principle indicated, namely, that all but works of major importance should be carried out by the revenue officers, still appears to me inherently sound in respect of a province which will, in all probability, be in a few years consigned to a native agency. The existing system cannot be expected to hold together when the time comes for handing over the province to the Maharajah; and it will become necessary either to maintain the department on its present footing without regard to his Highness’s sentiments, or it will be suddenly withdrawn, when there will be a disastrous collapse. It appears therefore of importance that all works that can be eliminated safely from the control of the public works department should be dealt with by the revenue officers, and that strenuous efforts should be made to insist upon the amildars attending more closely to this branch of their duties, giving each of them the assistance mentioned, namely, a maistry and a mutsaddi. These views are believed to be in accordance with the opinions expressed by the irrigation committee, whose resolutions have been forwarded to the supreme government, and they certainly correspond with the sentiments of the leading natives of the country. A vast number of works in connection with repairs must be carried out, and without entering into any invidious comparison between their execution by either branch of the service—a comparison which is unnecessary, as so much is now done by contract, there can be no question that the time of the public works officers is too valuable to be

frittered away on minor tank repairs to the detriment of their other duties. But to make them over entirely to the ryots, except for mere upkeep after the works have been put in repair would not answer; moreover, there is a special payment made by the ryots in the shape of a tank fund, which warrants their looking to government for all repairs not coming under the head of upkeep.'

In the next year's report we are told that the Government of India authorized the carrying out of the repairs in two districts as an experiment, one by the department of public works and the other by revenue officers, in view to the actual results being compared. As the department of public works has now taken over charge of the entire work, probably the latter experiment failed. A fundamental fallacy involved in all these descriptions is the comparison which is attempted to be made between the finished work of the scientific engineer and the ruder executions of revenue officers. There are very erroneous ideas in regard to some innate capacity in revenue officers for these works. The real comparison is between the economical results of expensive engineers devoting their attention to the execution of these small works, and their execution by cheap professional maistries of local experience, acting under the orders and supported by the influence of the local revenue officers, and guided by the principles and instructions which the scientific engineer can always with great advantage give in such matters. Not even so. The real comparison is between the government undertaking this enormous responsibility in numerous scattered works to which they cannot sufficiently give attention, and which must inevitably lead to eventual waste and corruption, and their making over these small works to the interested landholder upon suitable terms and conditions. Such an experiment appears to have been successfully tried soon after Mr. Bowring joined the province, and there is no reason why it should not be

developed and extended. The ignorance of the ryots in Mysore may prove some obstacle, but the revenue authorities, when divested of the corrupt influence of having to spend money themselves, can easily see to the works being maintained in efficiency by the ryots. Another even greater fallacy is the habit of viewing the province as one destitute of all reminiscences of practical knowledge and experience in these matters of daily interest to the people, as if it had not possessed from time immemorial extensive irrigation works, to which indeed little has been added by the British administration, and as if these works have not been maintained in order to the present day, though not without occasional accidents from laxity of supervision and from the greater risk to which the peculiar configuration of the ground in this province exposes these works, and as if the single act of repair now proposed to be done to them can for ever guarantee the safety of works which have lasted up to this time, and which can hereafter be maintained only by continued care and attention.

We have already the first instalment of this gigantic policy in the shape of an estimate of 63,000 rupees for the repair of twenty-three small tanks possessing an irrigable area of about 100 rupees value under each, or of about 3,000 rupees under all of them. Consider that the assessment of irrigated lands in the province amounts to twenty-five lacs of rupees, and that there are upwards of 20,000 of these small tanks, what endless career of ruin to the revenues of the province may not this rate of progress involve? These small, insignificant tanks in the higher parts of valleys are of little value except in the Mulnaud Taluks, with their abundant rains. They have very limited capacities for holding water, compared with the cost of bunds which have to be raised; their beds are rapidly silted up, and owing to the percolation of water which takes place in such uneven surfaces, what

little water is received is rapidly drained away, whilst the irrigable area in such uneven grounds is always insignificant. These causes have led to the works being more or less abandoned, the dry cultivation of the lands in the bed of the tanks proving more profitable; or to their being given over to the care of the individual landholder who may happen to have any lands under them, government confining itself to the larger tanks below, which are alone of irrigable value to any considerable extent, placing them in such condition of efficiency as to stand against any occasional accidents to the smaller tanks above. It may be useful, therefore, to have the merits of this question thoroughly investigated by the light of the knowledge of the local revenue officers and of real native experience, before the government further commit themselves to a policy which may lead to great complications in the future. In one district a revenue officer, impelled by a desire for personal distinction, has, in a single year, by the application of a little pressure, caused the ryots by compulsory labour to execute an amount of work to all the tanks in his district which the public works department may not hope to accomplish in several years, or without an enormous outlay of money. Such a pressure, a little more legally and systematically applied, with due regard to the feelings and convenience of the people, under the guidance of general instructions furnished by the engineering department, and assisted by small contributions of government money for the stone and masonry work, might place all these tanks in an efficient condition in the course of a year or two, without the necessity of a resort to any such gigantic scheme as the one under notice.

Under the arrangements made by Mr. Bowring, as already noticed, a considerable amount of public works is executed under the orders of revenue officers. This comprises as large an extent of roads as the public

works department has charge of, by far the greater number of the tanks, and the minor repairs of civil buildings. The annual expenditure on these amounts to upwards of a lac of rupees of public revenue, and about a lac and a half from the district funds, which are superintended by an establishment costing only 28,000 rupees per annum, being only 10 per cent. upon the outlay on the works. The establishment consists of a native surveyor attached to each district, some of which class of men do as good work as any engineering officer, though thrown into the shade by total neglect and discouragement, and by Taluk maistries, who, though not possessing any scientific knowledge, have peculiar aptitude for doing cheap, good work. If the system were enlarged and improved, the European engineering staff might be reduced to the small number required for the charge of the few large special works and for general superintendence, guidance, and instruction, which ought to be their province. But with each successive year the prospect of a native engineering agency becomes more remote. In fact the administration reports tell us that the experiment of training native engineers proved a failure, owing, it is alleged, to the dislike of natives of good family to the active professional life of an engineer. What a melancholy prospect this for a province which, not many years back, saw its public works executed chiefly through native agency, and which even now can show some natives, at least, with as good capabilities as could be desired, not to mention the unemployed native energies in the neighbouring provinces which are so easily available. But the revival of a decayed art, or rather the introduction of a new one, is a slow, arduous process, which cannot be expected to thrive under the summary and impatient treatment of government, with its indifferent acquaintance with men and with its want of sympathetic interest and care. But a more serious im-

pediment to the success of these experiments is the lust of patronage which, once tasted, has a tendency to breed in departments a strong desire for exclusiveness, and for making an alchymist's secret of their professional knowledge.

As previously referred to, a considerable portion of the expenditure on public works is provided for from what are called district funds. These funds are derived from local cesses levied on the amount of the land and other sources of revenue, at half an anna per rupee, for the purpose of providing local roads, school houses, and other local objects. This rate is raised to one anna in the rupee in the Taluks brought under the survey settlement, whilst a further cess of an additional anna is collected on the revenue of wet lands for the maintenance of irrigation works. The levy of these cesses, it would be imagined, would save the cultivators from arbitrary demands for labour, but the reign of compulsory labour is in as full swing as ever in the province of Mysore, rather indeed increasing with every new department that is organised and brought to bear on the cultivators. It totally unsettles the people's minds, and contributes more than anything else to induce that apathetic listless character for which the Mysore ryot is so freely condemned. The administration report for 1870-71 pays a compliment to the deputy superintendent of Hassan for having induced the ryots by his personal influence to contribute their labour free to the formation of roads for which ample funds are provided by the local cesses, and the officers of the Mysore district doubtless hope for even warmer acknowledgment for their exertions in the same direction in last year. These terms, '*personal influence*' and '*voluntary labour*,' only add ridicule to the cruelty of these exactions, made by selfish, arbitrary minds, impelled by a desire for personal distinction. These demands for labour are often made without any regard to the feelings

and convenience of the people, not unfrequently in a wasteful manner for ideal improvements in which the village population do not sympathise, or for immature works which have to be afterwards abandoned ; and as readily for the supply of personal wants as for public purposes, and involve altogether an amount of petty oppression destructive of all ideas of right and independence in the minds of the people. It is undoubtedly desirable to stimulate a desire in the ryots to keep their villages in good condition by the planting of trees and topes, and attending to the cleanliness of streets and other improvements. But this can be only brought about by the arduous labours of sympathising minds, tender to the feelings of justice, fairness, and right, striving to excite a feeling of self-pride in the villagers and inducing them to feel the want of such improvements under strictly legalised arrangements. The capricious arbitrary exercise of authority, which is too often the tendency of the Indian public official, must inevitably postpone such a result.

The result of all this bungling policy in the matter of public works is the hopeless postponement of the long contemplated Mysore State Railway. After going for several years through all the delays and contradictory opinions which attend the discussion of these questions in India, a railway from Bangalore to Mysore was eventually sanctioned three years ago, the requisite staff of government engineers were appointed (though wiser heads would have preferred the taking up of the work by trained English contractors), and the surveys of a line were completed at a cost of upwards of a lac of rupees. Matters thus seemed ready for a start, and the trade of Mysore, languishing after the cessation of the large expenditure attendant on the late Maharajah's court, was looking forward to some revival from this undertaking ; when suddenly, by one of those

accidents which have of late become common owing to the multiplicity of authorities and the chaos in which Indian policies are enveloped, the administration report for 1871-72 announces that the Mysore State Railway is indefinitely postponed, preference being given to the more urgent irrigation projects. What the nature and scope of these projects are, and how little they are calculated to add to the existing sources of irrigation which have taken advantage of every natural facility, have already been noticed. A considerable extent of land lies waste under the existing river channels, and a great deal more is imperfectly cultivated. The urgent want of the province is not irrigation, but life and enterprise in the cultivator, and what can evoke them so successfully as that great civiliser of modern days—the railway? With the increase of activity and intelligence which are sure to come in the train of these quicker means of transport and communication, we may hope for a considerable increase of private irrigation and garden cultivation, for which the province is peculiarly adapted. The usual diversity of products between the districts bordering on the Ghauts and those nearer the coast, and the importance of two capitals like Mysore and Bangalore, would make the line a fair average one in respect of profits; and in such a railway the British Government may hope to leave a far more certain legacy to the future Native State than in the money frittered away in scattered irrigation works.

We shall not fatigue the reader with any lengthened remarks on the other departments of the state machinery, which, not bearing directly on the natural wants of the people, are regarded as of secondary importance. Of these, however, the department of education requires special notice. It is the most potent instrument in modern days for improving the condition of a people, and as such it deserves every attention from a Government engaged in the important task of preparing a pro-

vince for a career of prosperity under native rule. The value of education is not correctly measured by the direct instruction imparted. The moral influence which the masters and others connected with the educational institutions are able to exercise by their example, conduct, and tone of thought, is at least of equal importance. The change in character, thought, and sentiment by which alone real improvement can be effected, is much more the indirect fruit of education than its direct consequence. And where, as in India, the after life of the student is so deficient in the healthy stimulus of a public career and of a public opinion, it becomes proportionately more important that his schooldays should be turned to most account by infusing into his mind the above essential elements of improvement. The nature of the work which the educational institutions in India have before them may not be inaptly compared to what similar institutions had to accomplish in the earlier periods of European civilization. They would attain their highest usefulness if they could be made so many centres of independent thought, disseminating healthy influences not only amongst the young, but bringing the old, native and European, into intellectual communion with each other, free from the small instincts and narrow views and despotic tone engendered by the immense official life which overhangs the country. Very far, however, from realising such a high ideal are the educational institutions of Mysore. The paid agency employed in their management, though it comprises all the paraphernalia of directors, inspectors, and schoolmasters, is conspicuous by the absence of any distinguished men of reputation throughout the whole of its ranks, whilst it is too often characterised by a tendency to form into small cliques of relations and friends, irrespective of qualifications. The operations of this department command no sympathy from the administrative heads

of the government, who evince little interest in the concerns of the school or the after career of the student, except perhaps by way of occasional addresses at the annual distribution of prizes to the students, deploring the evil of the increasing numbers of students who worry them for government employment. The schools further do not enjoy the support and co-operation of school boards of native and European members, such as would be so useful in a backward province in encouraging the healthy development of the student and diffusing educational ideas amongst the people at large. The lifeless manner in which under such circumstances the usual modicum of instruction is imparted in these schools, or is devoured by the students under the pressure of having to pass examinations, even in spite of their half-informed masters, can have little effect in promoting a healthy development of character, thought, and sentiment. The vivifying influences which are necessary to form such a growth of character are utterly wanting. The few who pass through the higher course of knowledge may have opportunities of imbibing the elements of an intellectual life from the great authors whom they study, and may turn out earnest sympathisers in the welfare of their country, though unfortunately high education has of late suddenly fallen out of favour in India. But under a system which prescribes but one monotonous course of general studies for all schools, without any practical or scientific education, the great mass of students who quit the schools in their lower grades, go out into the world with a vague incomplete smattering of history and theory of mathematics, which are soon forgotten, without useful knowledge or information of any kind, and more unpractical and with much less of character than their uneducated brethren. Besides the higher and middle-class schools, large numbers of village or Hobli schools have been recently opened for the instruction of the children of the

rural population, and the large numerical results which these institutions are able to show, find a paragraph in the statement of the moral and material progress and condition of India presented to Parliament for the year 1871-72. Owing to the absence of an indigenous system of education amongst the rural classes of this province, unlike the more advanced districts on the coast, any attempt to teach them the elements of education cannot be without some use, but it may be apprehended whether the undigested system adopted, which is neither English nor vernacular, and the worthlessness of the masters, may not prove more destructive to the industrial character of the people than beneficial.

Allusion has already been made to the abandonment of the engineering class as a failure, and no other efforts of any kind have been made in the way of either special or industrial education. The fact which will perhaps best illustrate the extent of educational interest in the province is, that there is not a single institution which brings together the European and native in intellectual conference. What different effects may not be produced by three or four earnest, highly educated Englishmen, fresh with English ideas, working at the head of each of the large schools in the province, aided by native assistant masters and boards of European and native members.

The operations of the medical establishments are confined to the small jail population, and other public establishments in the chief towns. The vital statistics of the province at large, which they so extensively report upon, are in no ways influenced by them, and the thousands who annually perish of fever and other periodic diseases do not come under their care. English medical knowledge cannot exercise any considerable beneficial influence on the people until great scientific minds are brought to the work of adapting it to the constitution, diet, and experiences of the native. But even the smaller mea-

sure of training medical pupils for employments in the districts, as far as they can be made useful, has not made any progress in the province. The superintendent of agricultural experiments has come to the conclusion that no improvement is feasible in the native system of agriculture, though this latest hobby of the Government may be expected yet to run its career of expansion and death. Of this, and all similar experiments, it will suffice to state that the necessity for improvement or the value of English science and knowledge is not doubted, but that in the manner in which these experiments are carried on, without any reference to the experience or wants of the country, or participation by the people, exciting only a temporary interest in the small circle of European officials, they eventually die as exotics, leaving no marks behind them.

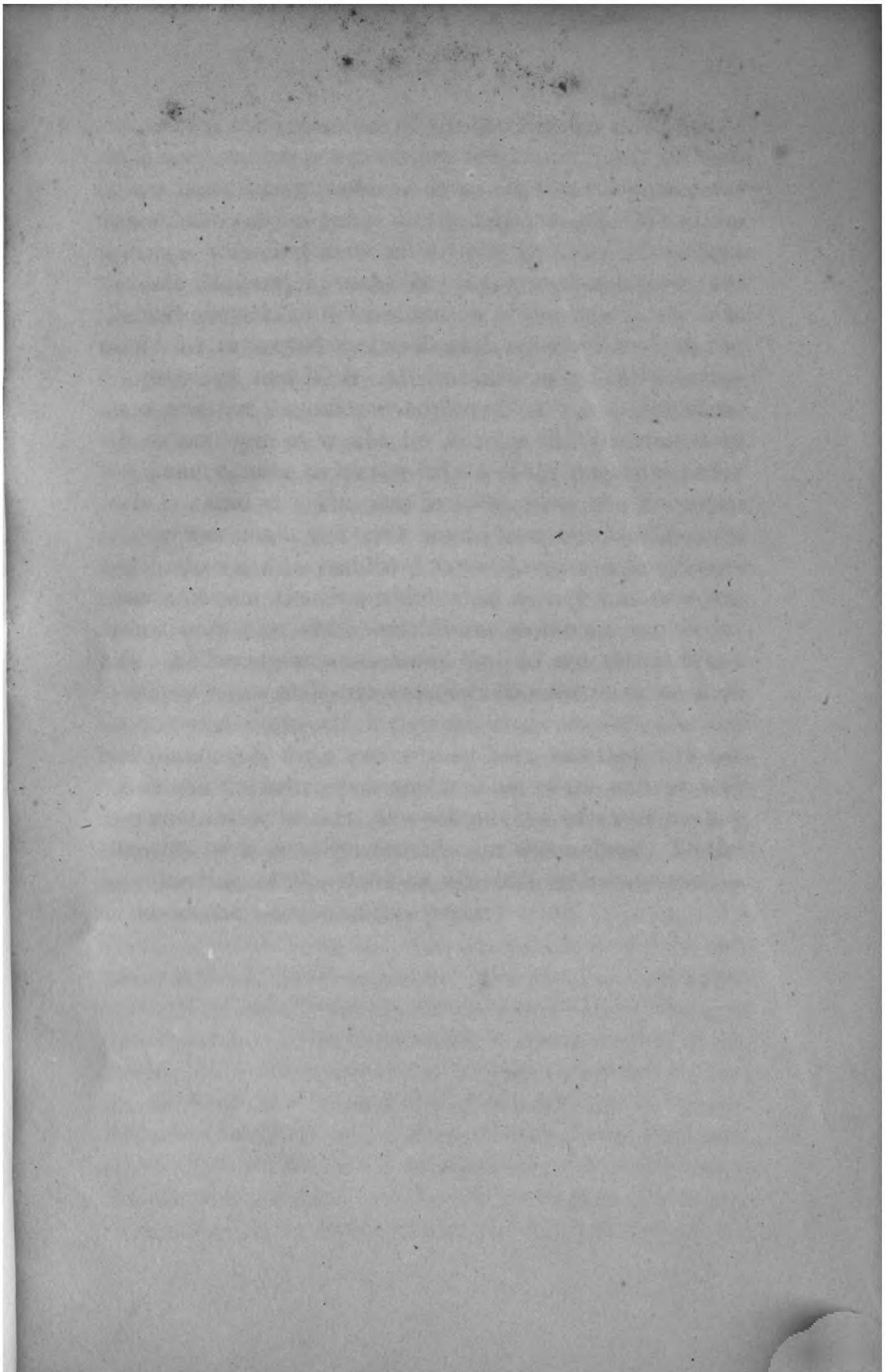
Before concluding this part of the subject, a few words on the Silladar, or irregular cavalry of the Mysore State, may not be without interest, especially as that force is now undergoing a process of decimation which is occasioning some discontent. This, with a corresponding force of Barr or infantry, forms the contingent which the Native State maintains under the terms of the treaty. The Silladars in particular have a great deal of tradition about them, and they are held in great repute amongst the people. They formed an important element in Hyder's forces, and rendered some good services in the earlier periods of British administration. Though since subjected to that career of neglect and decay to which all native institutions are exposed under British management, and though the character of the force is undergoing a gradual deterioration by the enlistment of the miscellaneous idle classes, whilst no efforts are made to arrest that system of corruption which is inherent in all old native institutions, the force is admitted to possess much endurance, character, sense of duty and responsibility, and to

render good police service in maintaining the peace of the province and in numerous escort duties. It is, however, chiefly valued on account of the encouragement it gives to the local breeding of horses, and on account of the honourable employment it holds out to the respectable and conservative classes of the Mahomedan, Marata, and other military populations, and as furnishing a specimen of a comparatively cheap local militia, enlisted from the conservative classes interested in peace, so rare in other parts of India. Unfortunately the fiat has now gone forth to reduce the numbers of this useful establishment by one half for the purpose of providing funds for public works. The measure may perhaps not be open to so much objection if there is any certainty of the saving not being spent in making the remainder of the establishment more costly, or in other useless expenditure. The point, however, to which we wish to draw attention is the tendency of the measure to eliminate all the men of service and character by the offer of pensions and other inducements, and to reduce the remainder more completely to that mercenary condition which makes all military forces in India a source of danger. This effect is especially brought out in the case of the higher officers of influence, viz., regimentdars and resaldars, commandants and deputy commandants, of whom it is reported that forty out of a total number of forty-two are proposed to be displaced by the offer of pensions, which they are told they may not hope for hereafter. The necessity of such a sweeping measure, which cannot be economical to Government in consequence of the large amount of pensions which it involves, can only be justified by a general inefficiency of all these higher officers, which cannot speak well for past European supervision; or what is more probable, it may result from that desire for patronage, or for the introduction of more European officers in the place of the native,

which characterises all the departments of the Mysore administration.

Such has been the progress of a fifty years' administration of Mysore. Real progress came to an end with the introduction of peace and order and the first elements of a regular government. All ideas of further improvement took the form of a continued introduction of new departments, one after another, after the fashion of those organised in the more advanced British Territories, but with much less life, without any grasp of their real principles, and without any comprehensive attempt to adapt them to the circumstances of the province. The departments under such circumstances have had a shorter career of usefulness than elsewhere. The life and activity attendant on the first conception and organisation of a new system were wanting to what was simply an imitation, and the usual excitement of a change died out at an early date; and though kept in check for a while by the vigilant control of the more than ordinarily able administrator who introduced these changes, the department soon assumed unmanageable proportions, with the invariable result in every instance of displacing native by European agency, and with the usual consequence of the claims, interests, and aspirations of the government officials throwing into the background the interests and welfare of the public. And if any instances of more than ordinarily gross failures cropped up, they only supplied arguments for a further augmentation of the European agency. The revenues of the province, notwithstanding that they have doubled themselves, and notwithstanding a considerable reduction of the household or palace charges of the Maharajah, are almost fully absorbed by these expensive establishments. As for the preparation of the government for native rule, it was an idea never seriously thought of for a considerable time; and, though of more recent years the question had to be recognised

and solved, the reduction of the overgrown government machinery, which is a necessary preliminary, has become such a bewildering problem as to lead to the consideration of the subject being indefinitely put off. When the province was first assumed by the British Government the late Maharajah, with his usual prescience, saw that the real obstacle to the restoration of the province to him would be presented by the English agency introduced in the province, and he is stated to have asked the Government whether the officers employed in the commission, whose employment would be lost by the restoration of the country, were to be the judges of the proper time for such restoration. This was in 1836, when the European agency was small, and what would have been his feelings and confusion if he had lived to see the enormous proportions and complications which that agency has now assumed, and from which extrication seems all but hopeless. Reflecting minds cannot fail to see that it is not in empty forms and expensive establishments, or even in the material works which they might accomplish, that the real foundation for a native rule lies; but that it rather consists in the instruction and training of the natives, and in giving them, in fact, the potentiality of evolving the elements of a good government for themselves. To the consideration of this question we shall address ourselves in the second portion of this paper.







The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the research and the objectives of the study. It then presents a literature review of the existing research on the topic. The methodology section describes the research design and the data collection process. The results section presents the findings of the study, and the conclusion section summarizes the main findings and provides recommendations for future research.

The study was conducted in a laboratory setting, and the data were collected using a series of experiments. The results of the experiments were analyzed using statistical methods, and the findings were compared with the results of previous studies. The study found that the research objectives were achieved, and the results were consistent with the hypotheses.

The study has several limitations, including the small sample size and the laboratory setting. Future research should aim to address these limitations and to explore the topic further. The study also has several strengths, including the use of a rigorous methodology and the collection of high-quality data.

In conclusion, the study provides valuable insights into the topic and contributes to the existing literature. The findings suggest that the research objectives were achieved, and the results were consistent with the hypotheses. The study also identifies several limitations and strengths, and provides recommendations for future research.